# Dialogue management: Function approximation for dialogue policy optimisation

#### Milica Gašić

Dialogue Systems and Machine Learning Group, Heinrich Heine University Düsseldorf Problems in applying RL to dialogue

Gaussian process model for Q-function

GP-Sarsa algorithm

Deep reinforcement learning

## Applying reinforcement learning to dialogue

#### Problems in solving dialogue as an RL task

- 1. Size of the optimisation problem
  - Belief state is large and continuous
  - Set of system actions also large
- 2. Knowledge of the environment, in this case the user
  - We do not have transition probabilities
  - Where do rewards come from?
- 3. RL algorithms take a long time to converge

#### Solutions

- ▶ Learn in reduced summary space (1)
- ► Learn in interaction with a simulated user (2&3)

Are these good solutions?

# Theory: Reinforcement learning

Policy deterministic 
$$\pi\colon \mathcal{B} \to \mathcal{A}$$
 or stochastic  $\pi\colon \mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{A} \to [0,1]$ 

Return 
$$R_t = \sum_{k=t+1}^{T} \gamma^{k-t-1} r_k$$

Q-function What is the value of taking action a in belief state  $\mathbf{b}$  under a policy  $\pi$ ?

$$Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}, a) = E_{\pi}(R_t \mid b_t = \mathbf{b}, a_t = a)$$

Can we find optimal *Q*-function with fewer data points so that we can learn from real users?

## Non-parametric model for *Q*-function



- Belief states (from belief tracker)
- Reward a measure of dialogue quality



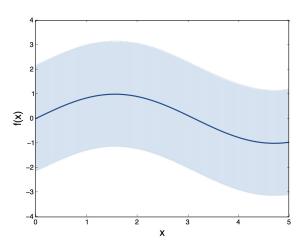
 Gaussian process model of the Q-function



Optimal Q-function

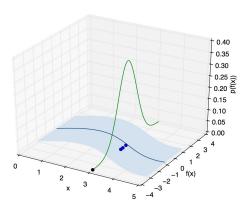
## Theory: Gaussian processes prior

$$f(x) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(x), k(x, x))$$



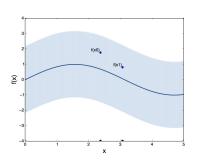
## Theory: Gaussian processes kernel

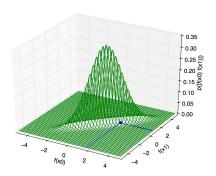
$$f(x_0) \sim \mathcal{N}(m(x_0), k(x_0, x_0))$$



## Theory: Gaussian processes kernel

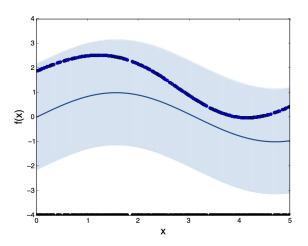
$$\left[\begin{array}{c} f(x_0) \\ f(x_1) \end{array}\right] \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\left[\begin{array}{c} m(x_0) \\ m(x_1) \end{array}\right], \left[\begin{array}{c} k(x_0, x_0), k(x_0, x_1) \\ k(x_1, x_0), k(x_1, x_1) \end{array}\right]\right)$$





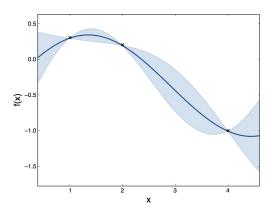
## Theory: Gaussian processes kernel

Any number of function values is Gaussian distributed.



#### Theory: Gaussian processes posterior

- ▶ Observations **y** in **x** and f(x) are jointly Gaussian distributed
- ► Conditional is then also a Gaussian process  $f(x)|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{GP}(\overline{f}(x),cov(x,x))$

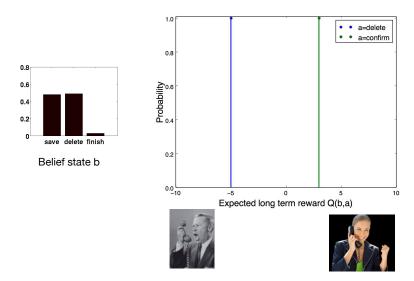


#### Toy dialogue problem

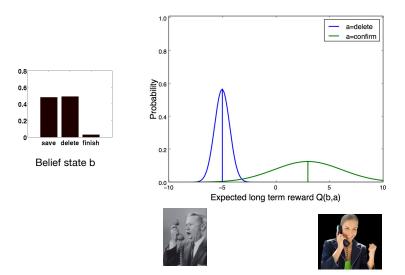
#### Voicemail

- States: The user wants the message saved, deleted or the dialogue is finished
- System actions: save the message, delete the message or confirm what the user wants

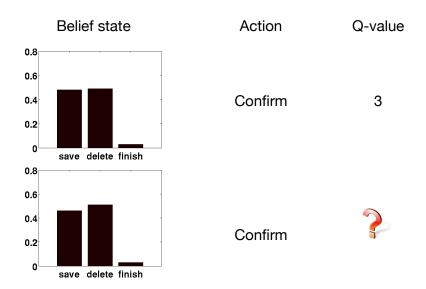
## Q-function estimate without uncertainty



# Q-function estimate with uncertainty



#### Role of the kernel function



# Gaussian process model for Q-function [Engel et al., 2005]

Expected return can be expressed iteratively

$$R_{t} = \sum_{k=t+1}^{T} \gamma^{k-t-1} r_{k} = r_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+1}$$

Q-function is the expectation of the return

$$Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}, a) = E_{\pi}\left(R_t \mid b(s_t) = \mathbf{b}, a_t = a\right)$$

lacktriangle Return can be modelled as the Q-value and residual  $\Delta Q_{\pi}$ 

$$R_t(\mathbf{b},a) = Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b},a) + \Delta Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b},a).$$

▶ Relationship between immediate reward and *Q*-value is then:

$$r_{t+1}(\mathbf{b}, a) = Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}, a) - \gamma Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}', a') + \Delta Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}, a) - \gamma \Delta Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}', a')$$

# Relationship between immediate rewards and Q-values

$$r^{1} = Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}^{0}, a^{0}) - \gamma Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}^{1}, a^{1}) \\ + \Delta Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}^{0}, a^{0}) - \gamma \Delta Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}^{1}, a^{1}) \\ r^{2} = Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}^{1}, a^{1}) - \gamma Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}^{2}, a^{2}) \\ + \Delta Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}^{1}, a^{1}) - \gamma \Delta Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}^{2}, a^{2}) \\ \vdots \\ r^{t} = Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}^{t-1}, a^{t-1}) - \gamma Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}^{t}, a^{t}) \\ + \Delta Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}^{t-1}, a^{t-1}) - \gamma \Delta Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}^{t}, a^{t}),$$

# Relationship between immediate rewards and Q-values

$$\mathbf{r}_t = \mathbf{H}_t \mathbf{q}_t^{\pi} + \mathbf{H}_t \mathbf{\Delta} \mathbf{q}_t^{\pi},$$

where

$$\mathbf{r}_t = [r^1, \dots, r^t]^\mathsf{T}$$
 $\mathbf{q}_t^\pi = [Q_\pi(\mathbf{b}^0, a^0), \dots, Q_\pi(\mathbf{b}^t, a^t)]^\mathsf{T},$ 
 $\mathbf{\Delta} \mathbf{q}_t^\pi = [\Delta Q_\pi(\mathbf{b}^0, a^0), \dots, \Delta Q_\pi(\mathbf{b}^t, a^t)]^\mathsf{T},$ 
 $\mathbf{H}_t = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\gamma & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 & -\gamma \end{bmatrix}.$ 

## Gaussian process model for Q-function

Prior 
$$Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}, a) \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k((\mathbf{b}, a), (\mathbf{b}, a))),$$
  $\Delta Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}, a) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ 
Observations Belief-action pairs  $\mathbf{B}_t = [(\mathbf{b}^0, a^0), \dots, (\mathbf{b}^t, a^t)]^{\mathsf{T}}$  immediate rewards  $\mathbf{r}_t = [r^1, \dots, r^t]$ 
Posterior  $Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}, a) | \mathbf{r}_t, \mathbf{B}_t$ 

#### Posterior of the Q-function

$$\begin{aligned} &Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b}, a) | \mathbf{r}_{t}, \mathbf{B}_{t} \sim \mathcal{GP}(\overline{Q}(\mathbf{b}, a), \text{cov}((\mathbf{b}, a), (\mathbf{b}, a))), \\ &\overline{Q}(\mathbf{b}, a) = \mathbf{k}_{t}(\mathbf{b}, a)^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{H}_{t}^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{H}_{t} \mathbf{K}_{t} \mathbf{H}_{t}^{\mathsf{T}} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{H}_{t} \mathbf{H}_{t}^{\mathsf{T}})^{-1} \mathbf{r}_{t}, \\ &\text{cov}((\mathbf{b}, a), (\mathbf{b}, a)) = k((\mathbf{b}, a), (\mathbf{b}, a)) \\ &- \mathbf{k}_{t}(\mathbf{b}, a)^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{H}_{t}^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{H}_{t} \mathbf{K}_{t} \mathbf{H}_{t}^{\mathsf{T}} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{H}_{t} \mathbf{H}_{t}^{\mathsf{T}})^{-1} \mathbf{H}_{t} \mathbf{k}_{t}(\mathbf{b}, a) \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{k}_{t}(\mathbf{b}, a) = [k((\mathbf{b}^{0}, a^{0}), (\mathbf{b}, a)), \dots, k((\mathbf{b}^{t}, a^{t}), (\mathbf{b}, a))]^{\mathsf{T}}$$

$$\mathbf{K}_{t} = \begin{bmatrix} k((\mathbf{b}^{0}, a^{0}), (\mathbf{b}^{0}, a^{0})) & \cdots & k((\mathbf{b}^{0}, a^{0}), (\mathbf{b}^{t}, a^{t})) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k((\mathbf{b}^{0}, a^{0}), (\mathbf{b}^{t}, a^{t})) & \cdots & k((\mathbf{b}^{t}, a^{t}), (\mathbf{b}^{t}, a^{t})) \end{bmatrix}$$

# Applying this to an on-line setting

Computational complexity – need to invert Gram matrix  $\mathbf{K}_t$ Sequential nature of data – need to perform updates sequentially Kernel function – need to define correlations

#### GP-Sarsa algorithm

- Gram matrix is approximated with a dictionary of representative points
- Updates take place every time a reward is observed
- Kernel function is decomposed into separate kernels over belief states and actions

$$k((\mathbf{b},a),(\mathbf{b},a))=k_{\mathcal{B}}(\mathbf{b},\mathbf{b})k_{\mathcal{A}}(a,a)$$

## Sparsification

▶ Kernel function is a dot product of potentially infinite set of feature functions  $\phi(\mathbf{b}, a) = [\phi_1(\mathbf{b}, a), \phi_2(\mathbf{b}, a), \ldots]^\mathsf{T}$ 

$$k((\mathbf{b}, a), (\mathbf{b}, a)) = \langle \phi(\mathbf{b}, a), \phi(\mathbf{b}, a) \rangle$$

▶ Gram matrix  $\mathbf{K}_t$  is approximated with Gram matrix over dictionary points  $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}_t$  and coefficients  $\mathbf{G}_t = [\mathbf{g}_1, \dots, \mathbf{g}_t]$ 

$$\mathbf{K}_t = \mathbf{\Phi}_t^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{\Phi}_t pprox \mathbf{G}_t \tilde{\mathbf{K}}_t \mathbf{G}_t^\mathsf{T}$$

▶ Dimensionality of  $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}_t$  is  $m \ll t$ 

## **Policy**

- For given **b**, for each action *a*, there is a Gaussian distribution  $\hat{Q}(\mathbf{b}, a) \sim \mathcal{N}(\overline{Q}(\mathbf{b}, a), \text{cov}((\mathbf{b}, a), (\mathbf{b}, a))))$
- Sampling from these Gaussian distributions gives Q-values  $\left\{\hat{Q}(\mathbf{b},a):a\in\mathcal{A}\right\}$
- ▶ The highest sampled *Q*-value can then be selected:

$$\pi(\mathbf{b}) = rg \max_{a} \left\{ \hat{Q}(\mathbf{b}, a) : a \in \mathcal{A} \right\}$$

This balances exploration and exploitation during learning

#### Kernel function

Action kernel Action space is reduced to summary space and then kernel is simple  $\delta$  function:  $k(a, a') = \delta_a(a')$ 

#### Belief state kernel Options:

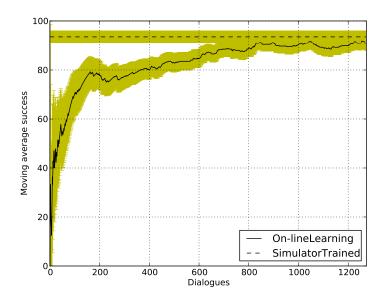
- Reduce to summary space and then calculate kernel on summary space
- Calculate the kernel directly on the full belief space
- For continuous variables use linear or Gaussian kernel

## GP-Sarsa algorithm

#### **Algorithm 1** GP-Sarsa algorithm

- 1: Define prior for *Q*-function
- 2: for each dialogue do
- 3: Initialise  $\mathbf{b}$  and choose a according to current Q estimate
- 4: if  $(\mathbf{b}, a)$  is representative add to dictionary
- 5: **for** each turn **do**
- 6: Take action a observe r and next belief state  $\mathbf{b}'$
- 7: Choose a' according to current Q estimate
- 8: if  $(\mathbf{b}', a')$  is representative add to dictionary
- 9: Update posterior mean and variance of Q
- 10:  $\mathbf{b}' \to \mathbf{b}, \ a \to a'$
- 11: end for
- 12: end for

# Learning from real users [Gasic and Young, 2014]



#### **GPSarsa**

- 1. Value-based or policy-based?
- 2. Model-based or model-free?
- 3. On-policy or off-policy?
- 4. Exploration?
- 5. High variance or high bias?

#### **GPSarsa**

- 1. Value-based
- 2. Model-free
- 3. On-policy
- 4. Thompson sampling
- 5. Biased by the choice of prior

#### GPSarsa - summary

- Q-function is modelled as a Gaussian process allowing posterior mean and variance to be calculated every time a reward is observed
- ► GP-Sarsa is a model-free, on-line algorithm which allows tractable approximation to the Gaussian process model for Q-function
- With adequate choice of the kernel function learning speed can be significantly improved
- Kernel function can be defined directly on belief space
- The bottleneck of this method is the computational complexity that is cubic in the number of representative points.

#### Non-parametric vs parametric approaches

- In non-parametric approaches the data are effectively the parameters of the model. The more data we have the more complex the optimisation process is.
- ▶ In parametric approaches we define the structure of the model that depends on parameters a priori and these parameters are estimated from the data.

#### Deep learning approaches

- Value function, Q-function or policy are approximated as neural networks
- ► These are approximated as non-linear functions, which is desirable in RL
- Gradient-based optimisation only finds local optima

#### Q-learning

3:

For discrete space S and dialogue states  $s \in S$ 

#### Algorithm 2 Q-learning

```
1: Initialise Q arbitrarily, Q(terminal, \cdot) = 0
2: repeat
      Initialize s
```

- 4: repeat
- Choose  $a \in \text{greedily}$ 5:
- 6: Take action a, observe r, s'
- 7:  $Q(s, a) \leftarrow Q(s, a) + \alpha \left(r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') Q(s, a)\right)$
- $s \leftarrow s'$
- until s is terminal g٠
- 10: until convergence

## Deep Q-network algorithm

- ightharpoonup Q-function is approximated as a deep neural network parameterised with  $\theta$
- ► The gradient is given by

$$\nabla_{\theta} L(\theta) = \nabla_{\theta} (r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(\mathbf{b}', a', \theta) - Q(\mathbf{b}, a, \theta))^{2}$$

#### DQN

- 1. Value-based or policy-based?
- 2. Model-based or model-free?
- 3. On-policy or off-policy?
- 4. Exploration?
- 5. High variance or high bias?

#### DQN

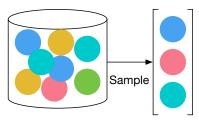
- 1. Value-based
- 2. Model-free
- 3. Off-policy
- 4.  $\epsilon$ -greedy
- 5. Biased

## Data for reinforcement learning

- In reinforcement learning data from which the agent learns is created through interaction.
- ▶ Reinforcement learning needs a lot of data, but each data point is used only once.
- ▶ In which set-up can we use the data more than once? Can we learn from experience rather than just through interaction?

## Experience replay

- ▶ All interactions that the agent generates are kept in experience replay pool.
- The agent can sample interactions from this pool to "replay" the interactions that it had.
- ▶ This learning set-up has a foundation in neuroscience and is related to dreaming in mice.



Experience replay pool

## Off-policy algorithms

- In order to apply experience replay the optimisation algorithm must be off-policy.
- ▶ Remember: off-policy learning follows a behavioural policy  $\mu$  while optimising a target policy  $\pi$ .
- In the case of experience replay the  $\mu$  is the policy that generated the experience.

## Policy-based methods

- Methods that learn a parameterised policy  $\pi(a|\mathbf{b},\omega)$
- Can select actions without consulting a value function
- ightharpoonup Optimised with respect to a performance measure  $J(\omega)$

## Policy gradient theorem

•  $J(\omega)$  is the value of the initial belief state.

$$J(\omega) = V_{\pi}(\mathbf{b})$$
 $\nabla_{\omega} J(\omega) = E_{\pi}[\nabla_{\omega} \log \pi(a|\mathbf{b},\omega)Q_{\pi}(\mathbf{b},a)]$ 

#### REINFORCE algorithm

- $\blacktriangleright$  Policy is approximated as a deep neural network parameterised with  $\omega$
- ▶ The objective function is the value of the initial state
- ▶ The gradient is given by the policy gradient theorem where  $Q_{\pi}$  is estimated in a Monte Carlo fashion as the total return

#### REINFORCE

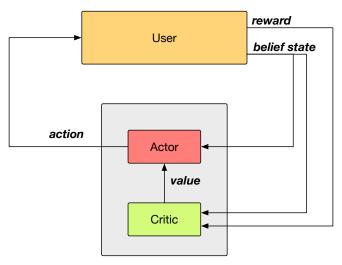
- 1. Value-based or policy-based?
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#### REINFORCE

- 1. Policy-based
- 2. Model-free
- 3. On-policy
- 4. Sampling from the policy
- 5. High variance

#### Actor critic methods

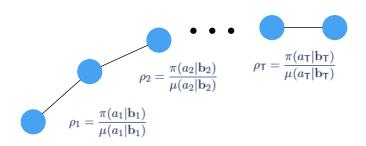
► Estimate the Q function or the value function (critic) at the same time as they estimate the policy (actor)



#### Importance sampling

Importance sampling allows us to take into account that a behavioural policy produced samples while optimising the target policy.

$$\rho(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b}) = \frac{\pi(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b})}{\mu(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b})}$$



## Problems with importance sampling

Since the importance sampling ratios are unbounded some trajectories may "vanish" and some may "explode", this is why we need to truncate the importance sampling ratio.

$$E_{\pi}[R] = E_{\mu} \left[ \prod_i rac{\pi(a_i | \mathbf{b}_i)}{\mu(a_i | \mathbf{b}_i)} R 
ight]$$

#### Off-policy policy gradient theorem

- Utilise importance sampling weights to off-set that the data is generated with a behavioural policy  $\mu$ .
- Use  $Q_{\pi}$  instead of R as the return in data generated by  $\mu$ .
- Estimation of  $Q_{\pi}$  becomes a critic in the actor-critic framework.

## Retrace - off-policy estimate for Q-function

In order to reduce bias (of DQN for example), the estimate deploys  $\lambda$ -returns, a method that combines the benefits of Monte Carlo estimates (which average returns) and temporal difference learning (which base estimates on the previous estimates) by looking a few steps in the future.

## Retrace - off-policy estimate for Q-function

The Retrace target is given by:

$$Q^{ret} = Q(\mathbf{b}, a, \theta) + \\ \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t \geq 0} \gamma^{t} \left(\prod_{s=1}^{t} \lambda \min\left(1, \rho(a_{s}|\mathbf{b}_{s})\right)\right) \\ \left(r_{t} + \gamma \sum_{a} \pi(a|b_{t+1}) Q(\mathbf{b}_{t+1}, a, \theta) - Q(\mathbf{b}_{t}, a_{t}, \theta)\right)\right]$$

The Q-function gradient is given by

$$abla_{ heta} L( heta) = 
abla_{ heta} \left( Q^{\mathsf{ret}} - Q(\mathbf{b}, \mathsf{a}, heta) 
ight)^2$$

## TRPO Trust region policy optimisation

- Remember: policy is a probability distribution.
- Small changes in the parameter space can lead to erratic changes in the output policy.
- Solution: natural gradient, but expensive to compute
- ▶ Distance metric in natural gradient can be approximated as the KL divergence.
- TRPO makes sure that the KL divergence between policies of subsequent parameters is kept small.

## ACER [Wang et al., 2016]

#### **Algorithm 3** ACER

```
1: Initialise \theta and \omega arbitrarily, \pi(a|\mathbf{b},\omega) and Q_{\theta}(\mathbf{b},a,\omega)
 2: repeat
 3:
            Generate episode e according to \pi
 4:
           Save episode e and policy \pi in replay pool P
           Sample a subset M of episodes from replay pool P
 5:
           for each pair \mathbf{b}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{T}, a_{1} \cdot \mathbf{T}, r_{1} \cdot \mathbf{T}, \mu in M do
 6:
                for t = T to 1 do
 7:
                     \rho_t \leftarrow \frac{\pi(\mathbf{a}_t|\mathbf{b}_t,\omega)}{\mu(\mathbf{a}_t|\mathbf{b}_t)}
 8:
                     d\omega \leftarrow d\omega + \nabla_{\omega} J(\omega)
 9:
                     d\theta \leftarrow d\theta - \nabla_{\theta} L(\theta)
10:
                end for
11:
           end for
12:
           k \leftarrow \nabla_{\omega} \mathsf{KL}\left[\pi(\cdot|\omega_{pr})||\pi(\cdot|\omega)\right], \ d\omega \leftarrow d\omega - \mathsf{max}\{0, \frac{k^T d\omega - \delta}{||k||^2}k\}
13:
14.
           \omega \leftarrow \omega + \alpha \cdot d\omega. \theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha \cdot d\theta
15: until convergence
```

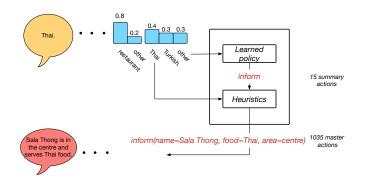
#### **ACER**

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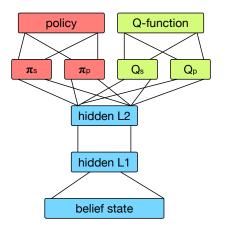
#### **ACER**

- 1. Actor-critic
- 2. Model-free
- 3. Off-policy
- 4. Thompson sampling from Boltzmann policy
- 5. Reduced variance and low bias

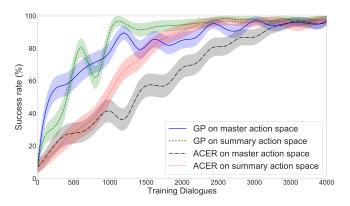
## Dialogue policy: Master action space



# ACER for dialogue management [Weisz et al., 2018]



# ACER vs GPSARSA on summary and master space [Weisz et al., 2018]



Note ACER needed ∼7h to train while GPSARSA needed ∼9 days on master action space.

#### **ACER: Summary**

- ► ACER is an elaborate deep reinforcement learning algorithm that aims to be sample efficient by utilising experience replay.
- ▶ It utilises several methods to provide estimates with low bias and variance to support efficient learning.

#### References I

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